The county seats
634 (hsien capitals) were the centers for tax col-
458 lection and administration of the surrounding farm-villages and also served as market towns where the peasant might sell his crop and purchase the manufactured goods he could not produce.

511 Town life for the average partisan was as meager as for his relatives in the village. Long hours, hard work, low pay, few holidays were the lot of most, and living conditions were generally poorer and more crowded than those in the villages. Proprietors of many shops required their employees to live on the premises, so that they seldom visited their families. The diet of the town dweller was as poor as that of the poor farmer -- mostly cereals, vegetables, and some condiments, and meat and fruit on
527 holidays only. Brief holidays were allowed at the New Year, the Ching-ming festival, the mid-Autumn festival, and the Dragon Boat Festival. On these occasions, townspeople usually tried to return to their villages; if this was impossible they enjoyed such delicacies as they could afford and strolled the streets, perhaps visiting friends and attending season fairs and theaters.

369 Life in the towns was, then, closely linked with village. But in the larger cities such as Peking, Tientsin, Taiyuan, and Ta-t'ung, life in some respects has been greatly altered by the modernization that spread slowly from the coastal to the inland cities. The streets are paved, and schools, newspapers, motion pictures, and radio make the people more aware of the outside world than are their cousins in the towns and

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634 D. The Political Subdivisions of Hopei and Shansi

The political subdivisions of the two provinces below the provincial level are tabulated as follows:

Hopei Province. Capital: Shihchiachuang

1. Eleven municipalities: Shihchia-chuang, Paoting, Tangshan, Chang-chia-k'ou, (Kalgan), Ch'in-huang-tao (Chinwangtao), Han-tan, Hsüan-hua, T'ung-chou, Han-ku, Po-t'ou, Hsing-t'ai.

2. One mining district directly under the control of the provincial government: Feng-feng Mining District.

3. Nine Districts:

a) Paoting (district administrative office at Paoting), 16 counties: Ch'ing-yüan, Wang-tu, Man-ch'eng, Wan, T'ang, Lai-yüan, I, Hsü-shui, Ting-hsing, Lai-shui, Cho, Hsin-ch'eng, Hsiung, Yung-ch'eng, An-hsin, Kao-yang.

b) T'ung-hsien (district administrative office at T'ung-chou), 13 counties: T'ung, Ta-hsing, Liang-hsiang, Fang-shan, Ch'ang-p'ing, Shun-i, Huai-jou, Mi-yün, P'ing-ku, Chi, San-ho, Hsiang-ho, Ku-an.

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c) Chang-chia-k'ou (district administrative office at Chang-chia-k'ou), 16 counties: Wan-chin, Chang-pei, Shang-i, Shang-tu, K'ang-pao, Ku-yüan, Ch'ung-li, Ch'ih-ch'eng, Lung-kuan, Yen-ch'ing, Huai-lai, Cho-lu, Wei, Yang-yüan, Hai-an, Hsüan-hua.

d) Tangshan (district administrative office at Ch'ang-li), 10 counties: Ch'ang-li, Lo-t'ing, Feng-jun, Yü-t'ien, Tsun-hua, Ch'ien-hsi, Luan, Ch'ien-an, Lu-lung, Fu-ning.

e) T'eintsin (district administrative office at Yang-liu-ch'ing), 11 counties: Ching-hai, Ch'ing, Ta-ch'eng, Jen-ch'iu, Wen-an, Pa, Yung-ch'ing, An-tz'u, Wu-ch'ing, Pao-ti, Ning-ho.

f) Ts'ang-hsien (district administrative office at Ts'ang-hsien), 16 counties: Ts'ang-hsien, Huang-hua, Ch'ing-yün, Yen-shan, Nan-p'i, Tung-kuang, Ning-chin, Wu-ch'iao, Ku-ch'eng, Ching, Fo-ch'eng, Chiao-ho, Hsien, Ho-chien, Su-ning, Wu-ch'iang.

g) Shihchiachuang (district administrative office at Shihchiachuang), 25 counties: Huo-lu, Cheng-ting, Kao-ch'eng, Chin, Shu-lu, Shen, Wu-i, Heng-shui, Tsao-ch'iang, Chi, Chao, Luan-ch'eng,

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634 Yüan-shih, Ching-hsing, Chieng-p'ing, P'ing-shan, Ling-shou, Jao-yang, An-p'ing, Shen-tse, Wu-chi, Hsin-lo, Hsing-t'ang Kao-i, Tsan-huang.

h) Hsing-t'ai (district administrative office at Hsing-t'ai), 22 counties: Hsing-t'ai, Nei-ch'iu, Lin-ch'eng, Po-hsiang, Kuang-tsung, Chü-lu, P'ing-hsiang, Jen, Nan-ho, Sha-ho, Ting, Po-yeh, Lü, Fo-p'ing, Ch'ü-yang, An-kuo, Lung-yao, Ning-chin, Hsin-ho, Nan-kung, Ch'ing-ho, Wei.

i) Han-tan (district administrative office at Han-tan), 14 counties: Han-tan, Yung-nien, Fei-hsiang, Chi-tse, Ch'ü-chou, Ch'iu, Kuang-p'ing, Ta-ming, Wei, Ch'eng-an, Lin-chang, Tz'u, She, Wu-an.

Shansi Province. Capital, Taiyuan.

1. Five municipalities: Taiyuan, Ta-t'ung, Yang-ch'üan, Ch'ang-chih, Yü-tz'u.

2. Five Districts:

a) Hsin-hsien (district administrative office at Hsin-hsien), 17 counties: Hsin, Kuo, Tai, Fan-chih, Wu-t'ai, Ting-hsiang, Yang-ch'ü, Ching-lo, Lan, K'o-lan, Hsing, Pao-te, Ho-ch'ü, P'ien-kuan, Shen-ch'ih, Wu-chai, Ning-wu.

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b) Yen-pei (district administrative office at Ta-t'ung), 12 counties: Ta-jen, Yang-kao, T'ien-chen, Kuang-ling, Ling-ch'iu, Hun-yüan, Ying, Shan-yin, Shuo, P'ing-lu, Tso-yün, Yu-yü.

c) Yü-tz'u (district administrative office at Yü-tz'u), 21 counties: Yü-tz'u, Shou-yang, Yü, P'ing-ting, Hsi-yang, Lin, Ho-shun, Tso-ch'üan, T'ai-ku. Yü-she, Ch'ing-hsü, Ch'i, P'ing-yao, Chieh-hsiu, Ling-shih, Hsiao-i, Fen-yang, Wen-shui, Chiao-ch'eng, Chung-yang, Li-shan.

d) Ch'ang-chih (district administrative office at Ch'ang-chih), 15 counties: Lu-an, Li-ch'eng, P'ing-shun, Fu-kuan, Ling-ch'uan, Kao-p'ing, Chin-ch'eng, Yang-ch'eng, Ch'in-shui, Chang-tzu, Tun-liu, Ch'in-yüan, Ch'in, Hsiang-yüan, Wu-hsiang.

e) Chin-an (district administrative office at Lin-fen); 30 counties: An-i, Ho-chin, Chi-shan, Hsin-chiang, Wen-hsi, Chiang, Yüan-ch'ü, Hsia, P'ing-lu, Chieh-yü, Jui-ch'eng Yung-chi, Lin-i, Wan-yung, Lin-fen, Hung-chao, Huo, An-tse, Fu-shan, I-ch'eng, Ch'ü-wo, Hsiang-fen, Hsiang-ning, Chi, P'u, Ta-ning, Yung-ho, Shih-lou, Hsi, Fen-hsi; one town: Yun-ch'eng.

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632 acting mayor, Ting T'ing-hsing, and Chang Hsiao-chih, a teacher at the teachers' college, were elected deputy-mayors; and 19 delegates were elected members of the municipal People's council. Their names were sent by the provincial governor to the Central People's Government for approval.[10]

634 F. Provisions Concerning the County Government and the County of P'ing-shun

According to the Organic Law of the local People's congresses and the local People's councils, the county government is to consist of a county head, a county council, and a few county deputy-heads -- at most 31 members -- whose terms of office are two years. The county People's council functions as follows:

(1) On the basis of the laws, decrees, and resolutions of the People's congress of the corresponding level and the decisions and orders of higher administrative offices, to determine administrative measures, issue decisions and orders, and to check on how these decisions and orders are carried out; (2) to sponsor election of deputies to the

10. Hopei Daily, May 10, -20, 1950 p. 22.

634 People's congress of the corresponding level; (3) to convene a People's congress of the corresponding level and introduce bills before it; (4) to direct the work of subordinate departments and of the People's councils at lower levels; (5) to suspend the execution of all inappropriate decisions adopted by the People's congresses at lower levels; (6) to revise or annul inappropriate orders and directives of subordinate departments and of the People's councils at lower levels; (7) to appoint and remove the personnel of state organizations, according to the provisions of the law; (8) to carry out economic programs and budgets; (9) to control the market, local state-owned industry, and commerce, and to direct socialist transformation of industry and commerce; (10) to direct agricultural and handicraft production and mutual-aid teams and producers' co-operatives; (11) to control tax collection; (12) to control communications and public works; (13) to control cultural, educational, health, pension, relief, and social-welfare work; (14) to control military service; (15) to protect public property, maintain public order, and safeguard civil rights; (16) to ensure the equal rights of minority nationalities; and (17) to carry out directives from the higher administrative agencies.

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634 The county People's council divides its work among the following departments or bureaus: civil affairs, public security, finance, grain, taxation, industry and commerce, agriculture and forestry, communications, culture and education, and health. If necessary, other bureaus can be established.

Deputies to the county People's congress are elected by the People's congresses at a lower level; their term of office is two years. The functions of the county People's congress are similar to those of the provincial People's congress.

Preparations for a harmonious relationship between the county People's council and the county People's congress involved the training and indoctrination of skilled personnel. Their duties were to include census-taking, the registration of voters, and negotiations among the representatives or deputies on nominating candidates for the presidium and members of the People's council. Personnel were trained in the procedures for planning elections, holding parliamentary meetings, submitting proposals, conducting debates, and nominating candidates. To suggest the complexity of the tasks involved, the work of the P'ing-shun county government in Shansi Province will be described.

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634 The first session of the People's Congress of P'ing-shun county was convened June 24-27, 1954, and was attended by 137 members.[11] Chao Yen-shou, the county head and chairman of the group designated to study the constitutional draft, reported on the work of the county and on the draft of the constitution. He said that, although P'ing-shun county lacked natural resources, under the leadership of the Communist Party economic conditions had improved. Ninety per cent of the population had joined mutual-aid teams and producers' co-operatives, and some 289 agricultural co-operatives had been formed within the county. The amount of food produced on each mou (one-sixth of an acre) had been increased from 180 to 236 catties (260 lbs.). Before the arrival of the Communists, he continued, peasants in the county were forced to live on chaff for six months of the year, but in the past year the county had a grain surplus of 6,300,000 catties (6,930,000 Lbs.). Before the Communist "liberation," the county had had only one school for primary students; now there were twelve, and a high school had been built. Ninety-five per cent of the children of school-age (approximately 46,000) were attending school. Some 4,000 new homes had been built, and in some rural areas telephones were available. His report drew an ovation from

11. People's Daily, June 30, 1954.

634 the assembled delegates.

A number of deputies voiced their approval of the constitutional draft, and after a debate on the activities of the local government, the election of two deputies to the provincial People's congress took place.

At another session following the promulgation of the Organic Law of the People's councils and the People's congresses, members of the county council were elected.

632 G. Provisions Concerning the Hsiang Government and the Yü-yen-shih hsiang

The hsiang government is composed of the hsiang People's congress and the hsiang People's council. The number of deputies to the hsiang People's congress is determined as follows: a hsiang or town having a population not exceeding 2,000 may elect 15-20 deputies; if the population exceeds 2,000, it may elect 20-35 deputies. A hsiang with an exceptionally small population may elect less than 15, but not less than 7 deputies; a hsiang with an exceptionally large population may elect more than 35, but not more than 50, deputies. Deputies to the hsiang congress are elected directly by the electors. The hsiang congress exercises the same function as the provincial and county congress. The hsiang People's

665 ts'un People's representative conferences in the
623 "old liberated" areas was the Communist attempt to consolidate rural political forces. It was an effort to strengthen the Communist hold and was taken immediately after the large scale Party training and overhauling launched in 1950. To strengthen the ts'un government, two measures were taken: one was the emphases of "key" village work,[59] and the other, the election of village People's representative conferences and village governments. While the "key" village plan was to create model villages where administrative experience might be gained, village elections were intended to overhaul old political set-ups and were carried out in all places within "old liberated" areas. As of March 1950 in Ting hsien, Hopei, 400 villages had completed village elections;[60] in the province as a whole,[61] 60 per cent of the villages had elected new village governments in November 1950.

The directives and plans calling for village elections were so elaborate that the concentrated efforts of all organizations was required.[62] The procedures followed in these elections were followed in the 1951 elections in the "newly liberated" areas and in the nationwide election of 1953-54. For this reason, the discussion of the 1950 election will be taken up in a later section.

665 3. Consolidation Period (August 1951-53).
634 The convening of the First Conference of County

59. People's Daily, Jan.28,1950,p. 3.
60. Ibid., March 26, 1950, p. 3.
61. Report of Yang Shiu-feng, Chairman of Hopei Province, Hopei Daily, Nov.25,1950,p.2.
62. People's Daily, Jan. 28, 1950, p. 3.

665 634 Heads in the North China Region marked the Communists' further attempt to stabilize the region The careful preparation and the wide discussion before and during the Conference signified the importance of this Conference. The Conference heard three important reports made by the head of the North China Bureau of Affairs, the Minister of Internal Affairs, and the First Secretary of the North China Party Bureau, and adopted a resolution outlining the ten tasks of rural administration. The Conference was also significant in that after this date administrative policies were made general in application; that is, the same policies were to apply throughout the region, in both "old liberated" and "newly liberated" areas.

The chief objectives set forth by the Conference were increase in agricultural production and consolidation of political power at the village and county levels. In most areas it was urged that county all-circle People's representative conferences act for the county Peope's congress which would not be elected until after the Constitution. At the village level, the transfer of political power from the Peasant Association to the ts'un government was accomplished. The transfer of power was marked by the overhauling of Party units and mass organization operating in the rural districts, the convening of ch'ü and ts'un Peoples' representatives converences, and the strengthening of ts'un government.

The convening of ts'un People's representative conferences in some of the "newly liberated" areas

665 repeated the 1950 experience. Election districts
634 were allocated largely according to the distribution of the mutual aid teams, but elections were held with an average participation of from 70 to 80 per cent of all the voters. The elected ts'un People's representative conference was comprised mainly of poor peasants. A statistical report[63] on the composition of 776 ts'un Peoples' representative conferences showed that poor peasants constituted 56 per cent, while middle peasants took 35 per cent. The remaining 9 per cent went to farm laborers (5 per cent) and to the handicraft workers (4 per cent).

623 The ts'un government was elected from the ts'un People's representative conference. It was to include commissions on civil affairs, finance and food, agricultural production, culture and education, sanitation, public security, militia, and other functions.

474 In the organization of mutual aid teams
665 among the peasants, high achievements were repeated in most provinces within the region. In Shansi, the organized peasants amounted to 55 per cent of the total peasant families. Hopei was the second largest with 49 per cent.[64] The other three provinces were poorly organized with 40 per cent for Pingyuan, 30 per cent for Chahar and 10 per cent for Suiyuan. The Communists did not attempt to increase the number of mutual-aid teams

63. Ibid., Aug. 10, 1951, p. 3.
64. Ibid., Dec. 30, 1951, p. 2.

2: Gamble S-5 (1926-1933) 1954 AF 1.2 North China AF 1.

There were 2,169 families in the city, and 67,865 in the 453 "villages" and "towns".

The number of families in the individual villages ranged from six to 1,200. Twenty per cent of the villages had less than 50 families, 46 per cent had less than 100 families, and 75 per cent had less than 200 families. Only seven, 1.5 per cent, had as many as 500 families. The average was 150 families per village, or 154 families if the hsien city is included.

The following figures show how the villages and families were divided in the six administrative districts of the hsien.

District	*Villages*	*Families*	*Average No. of Families per Village*	*Average No. of Mu per Family*
1	71	6,555	92	23.8
2	63	8,062	128	22.8
3	83	15,939	192	21.5
4	73	16,010	220	19.7
5	73	7,864	108	19.1
6	90	13,435	149	19.8
City	—	2,169	—	6.2
	453	70,034	150	20.4

It will be noted that in the different districts the number of villages varied from 63 to 90, the number of families from 6,555 to 16,010, and the average number of families per village from 92 to 220. We have not been able to find any reason for the wide variation in the averages. There were four market towns in the 4th District, the one with the largest average, but while there were two market towns in both the 3rd and the 5th District the average in the 5th District was 50 per cent more than in the 3rd. There was no market town in the 1st District as the city was its market center. If the city and 1st District are added together the average was 121 families per "village".

In contrast to the wide variation in the average number of families per village, there was only a small difference in the average amount of crop area per family in the six districts. It ranged from 19.1 mu in the 5th District to 23.8 mu in the 1st District. The average for the entire hsien, including the city and its three suburbs, was 20.2 mu per family.

A complete study of any part of the Chinese population is a difficult

2: Gamble S-5 (1926-1933)1954 AF12 North China AF12

PART 2. GOVERNMENT AND EDUCATION

CHAPTER VI

Government

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TING HSIEN was widely known as a Model Hsien of Hopei (Chihli) province. The magistrate Sun Fa-hsü,[1] who held office from May 12, 1914, to September 26, 1916, applied to the provincial government for permission to reorganize the area as a model hsien. The permission was granted and offices for Model Plans were opened in each of the six districts in May, 1916. In each office there were four directors who were chosen by the gentry. There were also six assistants and one secretary who took charge of the affairs of the office. The directors were to assist the magistrate in making improvements in the district and were to make suggestions and report to the yamen concerning developments in the program. The assistants, acting under the direction of the magistrate or the district directors, were to promote the public welfare and supervise the work of the village heads and vice-heads.

The plans called for a monthly conference on model hsien affairs. The gentry were invited to attend and give their suggestions. All decisions of the conference were reported to the yamen. If t[illegible] were approved by the magistrate the district offices were to help enforce them. As part of the model program, schools were established, adult education was promoted, public lectures were presented, the police force was reorganized, industry, commerce, communications, finance, and the administration of justice were improved.

Under the guidance and stimulus of the magistrate Sun Fa-hsü the program evidently was very effective. Our reports show that 9 per cent of the schools in the hsien were established in 1914 and almost 35 per

1. Sun Fa-hsü, whose courtesy name was Sun Shun-chai, was born in 1869 in T'ung-ch'eng Hsien, Anhui. During the revolution of 1911 he served under Li Yuan-hung. After his service in Ting Hsien he was appointed civil governor of Shansi under Yen Hsi-shan. The fact that he came from the same distict as Tuan Ch'i-jui is given as one of the reasons for his rapid political rise.

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2 Gamble S-5 (1926-1933) 1954 AF12 North China AF12

634 cent in 1915. In the Experimental District 75 per cent of the 327 temples
185 given up from 1882 to 1928 were discontinued during the three years 1914–16, when Sun was in office. The usually conservative countryside was willing to accept Sun's new proposals and program as they fitted in with the enthusiasm for change that followed the Revolution of 1911.

It is not clear how much influence the model hsien program had after Sun left Ting Hsien, but the organization was continued and provision was made for its support in the hsien expense budget. In 1929 the hsien received $6,000 from the provincial treasury for the model hsien program. This apparently was an annual grant. In 1931 Ting Hsien still had the reputation of being a model hsien.

634 Before the Revolution of 1911 Ting Hsien was known as Ting Chou, as it was the headquarters of a chou government. Its name was changed to Ting Hsien in 1913, when the provincial government was reorganized and the chou, administrative areas that included several hsien, were discontinued.

Under the empire a hsien magistrate ordinarily had an official staff of assistant magistrate, prison warden, patrol officers, and clerks, besides his personal staff of secretaries and confidential servants. The work of the hsien was carried on through eight executive offices: ceremonies, documents, engineering, judicial, military, personnel, taxation, and treasury.

The reorganization plan promulgated by the National Government in 1913 called for four main sections in the hsien government: home affairs, finance, education, and industry. There also were to be six subsections with the necessary secretaries and clerks. The magistrate Sun Chia-yu in 1913 applied for permission to make the required changes but the actual reorganization was not carried out until 1914 when Sun Fa-hsü was the magistrate. He established three instead of four sections, combining education and industry. For the convenience of the people he added an information office. The model hsien program, which gave more emphasis to public welfare work, was introduced in 1916.

In 1920 an executive committee was organized to develop plans for constructive work in the hsien.

The 1913 reorganization called for the separation of the administrative and judicial functions of the magistrate's office and the creation of a separate court of justice with assessors in charge of civil and criminal cases. The magistrate was to retain the right to review the decisions of

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the court. "Because of the inconvenience to the people" the separate court was abolished in the spring of 1914. Instead of having separate assessors, the judicial cases were handled by officers who were sent by the provincial government at the request of the magistrate. Ting Hsien had two such officers, one for civil and one for criminal cases.

The hsien government was reorganized again in 1928 after the forces of the Nationalist Government had taken Peking and unified the government and "the Republic had been established in the victory of the Revolution". There were then three sections and the four bureaus of public safety, finance, education, and construction. The First Section was in charge of police, fire protection, sanitation, health, relief, forest protection, and census. The Second Section was responsible for lands, agriculture, engineering, roads, bridges, waterways, labor, industry, business, schools, libraries, museums, and parks. The Third Section looked after the fiscal affairs of the hsien, appropriations for the hsien budget, taxes in money and grain, taxation on land, loans, public lands, local finance, audit, and the handling of hsien funds and hsien property. The work of each section was in charge of a section head, an assistant head, and from three to five clerks. The monthly salary of a section head was $60, of his associate from $30 to $40, of a clerk $11. The heads of the three sections and the four bureaus met weekly as the hsien government committee to discuss problems and plan for the improvement of the administrative program.

In 1928 another effort was made to establish a separate court of justice responsible to the high provincial court rather than to the magistrate. The court was organized with a judge, a judicial officer and five clerks, a prison staff of 12, a prison head, one matron, 10 guards, 10 judicial police, and 10 regular police. The budget of the court was $480 a month, or $5,760 per year. This was paid from the provincial treasury rather than from hsien funds.

In spite of the new organization the court was not entirely removed from the control of the magistrate. He generally was able to influence the high court in the appointment of the judge and he had to review and approve all court decisions before they were carried out.

The reorganization of 1928 added the Kuomintang (Nationalist Party) Board and its subsidiary organizations to the hsien political machinery. Members of the Kuomintang had been working secretly in Ting Hsien from 1924, and thus were prepared to develop an organiza-

2: Gamble S-5 (1926-1933) 1954 AF12 North China AF12

634 665 tion when the Party came to power, following the success of the Nationalist armies and the capture of Peking. The Party Board was the basic organization. It had 208 members: 82 teachers, 53 students, 20 farmers, 17 officers, 13 merchants, 5 officials, 2 soldiers, 2 policemen, and 14 others. The work of the Board was carried on by an Executive Committee with a secretarial organization, training and propaganda divisions, and an Inspection Committee. In 1929 the activities of the Board were supported by a grant of $16,800 from hsien funds.

The work of the Party Board was discontinued in 1930 because of political changes but it was begun again in 1931, after the military situation had cleared.

After its organization in 1928 the Board promptly set up five subsidiary organizations for farmers, merchants, laborers, students, and women. Each organization was to promote the interests of its special group. Executive and inspection committees usually were organized, but the subsidiary organizations evidently were set up primarily to function at the instigation of the Party Board. They were given no budgets and any incidental expenses of meetings and other activities were met from Party funds. They all sent representatives to conferences and rallies, parades, and committee meetings. Meetings of the anti-opium and the finance committees were specially mentioned.

467 Before 1928 labor unions were unknown in Ting Hsien. The old gilds had included both the masters and the men. After the establishment of the Party Board, labor unions were promptly organized and the General Labor Union of Ting Hsien was organized by the Tailors' Union, Shoemakers' Union, Silversmiths' Union, Carpenters' Union, and Barbers' Union.

As the Farmers' and Women's Associations covered the entire hsien the farmers had central, district, and village organizations, the women, central, district, branch, and sub-branch organizations.

634 185 The National Conference on Home Affairs, held in December, 1932, took hsien government reform as its central theme of discussion. The Conference recommended that an Institute of Political and Social Reconstruction be established in the provinces willing to experiment with the problem of rural reconstruction, that an Experiment Area be set aside as the laboratory of the Institute, and that the Area be under the direct and complete control of the Institute. This recommendation was enacted into law by the sanction of the Central Political Council, and

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the Hopei Institute of Political and Social Reconstruction was organized in the spring of 1933. Ting Hsien was selected as the location of the Institute and as its experimental district. The General Director of the Mass Education Movement was appointed as president of the Institute and other members of the Movement staff were given responsible positions in the Institute. Franklin Lee, head of the Movement's Social Survey Department, was appointed concurrently as director of the Survey Department of the Institute.

Magistrate

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The chief officer of the hsien government was the hsien chang, or magistrate. Ordinarily he was appointed by the Central Government on the recommendation of the Provincial Governor and held office at his pleasure. Under the Manchu government it was the rule that no man could be appointed to office in his native province and that a hsien magistrate's term should not be more than three years. Those rules were also generally followed under the Republic.

While the magistrate was responsible to the provincial government and was required to carry out its orders and instructions, his position and local power as both chief judicial officer and chief administrator made it possible for him to affect greatly the life and development of the hsien. The character and quality of the administration was largely determined by him. Ordinarily the magistrates followed the customary procedures, produced the usual revenue or perhaps a small increase, and made few changes in the established routine. Coming from another province, they had no personal interest in developing the area. Their tenure of office was usually relatively short (from 1901 to 1928 the average was only 13 months) so there was little incentive to initiate a program that would take some time to carry out. The magistracy being the lowest of the appointive offices of the provincial government, the incumbents, hopeful for promotion, would not be apt to initiate any undirected changes. Occasionally a man like Sun Fa-hsü, stimulated and aided by the enthusiasm and idealism of the Revolution, made great changes.

Twenty-four men served 25 terms as magistrate in the 27 years from May 16, 1901 to September 21, 1928. One man was given two short appointments. The shortest term was one month and eight days. Four terms were less than two months, eight were less than six months, and

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17 of the 25 appointments were terminated in less than one year. Two terms were more than three years. The longest was just 18 days less than five years. One wonders what personal characteristics or political conditions made it possible for the magistrate Ch'en Yen-chang to hold office from November, 1905, to October, 1910, and Fu En-te from March 5, 1920 to January 23, 1924, especially when the regular rule was that a magistrate's term of office was not more than three years.

The disturbed conditions and the political readjustments after the Boxer disturbances undoubtedly accounted for the six appointments made between May, 1901, and November, 1905. From then until January, 1924, all the magistrates served for more than one year except for two short appointments during the time of the Revolution, November, 1911, to December, 1912. The political changes brought by the revolution were evidently quickly accomplished and rapidly stabilized.

The civil wars that began in 1924, the changes in the government in Peking, the resulting changes in the government of Hopei province, and the coming of the Nationalist forces were undoubtedly reflected in the 10 appointments made between January, 1924, and September, 1928. All were less than one year and five of the 10 were ended in less than six months.

The known age range of the magistrates at the time they held office was from 37 to 54. Most of the group were between 40 and 50. Six of the 14 magistrates whose educational record was available had been trained in the old classical system. Three held the Chü-jen, two the Kung-sheng degree. Others were graduates of law school, higher normal school, or officers' training school. One had been educated in Japan.

In the reorganization of 1913 the Central Government set limits for the administrative expenditures of the hsien governments. The Chihli (Hopei) Provincial Government divided its hsien into six classes, with the amount of the hsien administrative expenditure determined by the class to which it was assigned. The money was to come from the provincial treasury and was not included in the hsien budget.

Ting Hsien at first was rated as a second class hsien and given $1,100 a month for its administrative budget. This amount was found to be insufficient and the hsien was advanced to the first class with an administrative budget of $1,300 a month. A later increase raised the amount to $1,400, but in 1919 the provincial government ordered a cut of $200 per month. At that time the monthly salary scale was magistrate

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$300, his assistant $100, two section and bureau heads $40, five section heads $30, 21 clerks an average of $9.50, and 16 other employees an average of $7. Supplies and miscellaneous expenses were budgeted at $258 per month.

We were not able to secure the magistrate's budget for 1929 from the provincial records nor, of course, was there any record of the amount of income the magistrate and his staff received from their "perquisites". It was generally reported, however, that because of the low salary scale, family and political financial demands, and long established custom, the amounts were at least "generous".

With the establishment in 1933 of the Hopei Institute of Political and Social Reconstruction, the president of the Institute was authorized to nominate the Ting Hsien magistrate. This made it possible for one of the Mass Education Movement staff to be appointed magistrate and for him to fix definite salaries for all hsien employees, to abolish "legalized" commissions, to require special training for all hsien employees, and to effect reforms in the prison, the police, and the militia.

Hsien Finance

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It was reported that prior to 1916 there was no regulated plan for controlling the hsien finances. Local organizations needing money would collect and use the necessary funds, but under the general centralized control of the hsien government. In 1916 a Civic Council of private citizens was organized to act as a central bureau for all hsien expenditures. The spending organizations were required to present their budgets to the Council and get the needed funds for them. In 1920 the Civic Council was changed to the Finance Board by order of the Provincial Committee. In 1925 the Board was abolished and its place was taken by a Municipal Council, which was replaced in August, 1928, by the Public Fund Bureau, which was replaced in November, 1928, by the Bureau of Finance. The budget for the operation of the bureau was $3,222 in 1929.

In December, 1928, the Ministry of the Interior organized a Government Planning Commission and made one of its responsibilities the improvement of hsien finance. The Commission, together with the Ministry of Finance, adopted the following Hsien Improvement Plan:

1. All receipts and expenditures were to be under centralized control.
2. Incidental taxes, emergency taxes, etc., all those that were not levied

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by the National or Provincial Governments, must be approved by the Provincial Finance Bureau.

3. Disbursements must be made according to the budgets and needs of the different departments. If there should be a deficit because of extraordinary conditions the hsien government could ask the provincial government for aid.
4. The finances of the hsien were to be managed by the Hsien Finance Board. It was expected to keep within the adopted budget.
5. No organization except the Finance Board was to be allowed to collect funds.
6. In case of an unexpected decrease of income the Hsien Finance Board was to take action so that the work of the other hsien bureaus would not be interrupted.
7. All authorized established organizations supervising local real property were to be retained.

The following figures give the amounts in the main sections of the hsien budget for the years 1917, 1928, and 1929. These do not cover the entire cost of the hsien government, as the amounts spent for the magistrate's administrative office and for the judicial branch were part of the provincial budget and the money came from the provincial rather than from the hsien treasury.

Hsien Expenditure Budget

	1917	1928	1929
Kuomintang	–	$ 7,100	$ 16,800
Administration	$ 8,812	14,676	16,558
Police and militia	25,257	22,516	27,504
Education	30,000	37,017	39,549
Construction	1,891	1,472	1,472
Special	894	6,343	6,343
	$66,714	$88,924	$107,886

The amounts for education and construction represent the expenditure for the activities and projects of those bureaus. The operating expenses of the bureaus themselves are included in the figure of administration.

The $16,800 for Party expense was a new item in the budget, for which 1929 was the first full year. It represented the largest increase

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over the 1917 budget. In 12 years the total budget increased 61 per cent, the amount for administration 81 per cent, for education 31 per cent, but for the police and militia only 10 per cent.

Police

The hsien police were reorganized in 1902. At that time the hsien was divided into five districts. In 1912 the name was changed, in line with the new terminology of the Republic, and there was a change in the number and duties of the top police officers. In 1915 there was another reorganization and the hsien was divided into six districts. In each district there was one central police office and from one to four branch offices. The total number of branch offices was 13. There was a police officer and assistant in each district office and an under officer in each branch office. The number of patrolmen was given as 263. Twenty-four of these were mounted police.

The police force was reorganized again in 1928 after the Nationalist forces reached North China. The name was changed to Bureau of Public Safety. The central office force was set up with one chief officer, two section heads and an associate for each, one inspector, a clerk, a treasurer, a porter, two police officers, one for the mounted detachment, an associate for each officer, ten policemen, and ten mounted men. In each of the six district offices there was a headman, a clerk, two police officers, two mounted police, and a varying number of foot police. In the branch offices, there was regularly one police officer and 12 men. The reported expenditure for the police force was $25,237 in 1917, $20,616 in 1928, and $25,884 in 1929.

Militia

The local militia, pao wei t'uan, was put under the Bureau of Public Safety in 1928 and given a headquarters budget of $1,700, but it was organized by the people rather than by the hsien government. The home guard had long been part of the village organization. This new organization apparently was an attempt to put it on a coordinated hsien-wide basis rather than have each village organize independently. The new organization and affairs of the militia were discussed by a meeting of the village heads and their assistants, called together by the magistrate. The six districts for the militia were the same as the six police districts. Each district was divided into five sub-districts. The village

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The militia were reported to be more effective than the police of the Bureau of Public Safety in protecting the villages. Being local volunteers, they were closer to the villages. In case of trouble the police would have to be summoned from the nearest branch office. The militia were especially helpful, during the winter period of farm unemployment, in protecting the villages from robbers and other trouble makers.

Bureau of Construction

In 1920 the head of the Bureau for Encouraging the People to Work was appointed by the Provincial Department of Industry from a slate of three nominated by the hsien magistrate. Four associates were also appointed. At that time the administrative expense of the Bureau was $122 per month. This expense was financed from one cash of the 3.5 cash received by the Merchants' Gild Association from the tax on each piece of native cloth sold in Ting Hsien. If this allocation was not sufficient, the difference was to be met from the one per cent of the land tax that was allocated to expenses. In 1922 the salary of the head of the bureau was $22 a month. The associates received $10 a month.

The Bureau for Encouraging the People to Work was changed to the Bureau of Industry in 1925. In the reforms of 1928 the Bureau of Industry became the Bureau of Construction. Its three sections were Agriculture, Construction, and General. In 1929 the administrative budget of the Bureau was $5,160. It was paid from the general hsien income. At that time the salary of the head of the bureau was $40 a month. The four experts were each paid $27 a month, the three section managers $24 a month, and the clerks $18 a month.

Reports on the work of the Bureau for Encouraging the People to Work stated that, from the establishment of the Bureau, a total of 25,802 wells had been dug and 3,311,220 trees of 17 different varieties had been planted. The China International Famine Relief's well survey report gave the number of wells dug from 1916 to 1930 as 26,103.[2]

The Bureau cooperated with the People's Factory by sending teachers to the villages to instruct the people how to make braid for straw hats. The braid was bought by the factory. In 1929 a subsidy of $156 was given to the factory, but in 1930 it had to be closed.

The Bureau of Construction required the people living along the

2. China International Famine Relief Commission, Series B #49, *Well Irrigation in West Hopei*, Preliminary Report, December, 1931.

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634 T'ang river to build extra bridges across the river besides those for the main roads and required repairs to be made on the roads. The Bureau reported that under its encouragement another 800,000 trees were planted and 900 additional wells had been dug.

634 185 The programs laid out by the Bureau were very extensive. In the Agricultural Section they included the promotion and development of silk worm culture, the growing of mulberry trees, increasing the orchards and forests, improving the soil and the farming implements. The Industrial Section planned to show the people how to make oil, soap, paper, and artificial fertilizer, how to improve the native cloth and other home industries. They also planned to open a flour mill, organize an electric company, and establish leather tanning. The general plans included correspondence courses, lecture programs for the farmers, agricultural and industrial exhibits, agricultural experiment stations, farmers' forest associations and forest protection police, a monthly magazine, and a general market. Lack of funds and disturbed conditions in North China prevented the implementation of most of these plans.

Agricultural Experiment Station

654 An Agricultural Experiment Station was established in 1916. Twenty mu of land were set aside for its use and $1,180 a year of the money received from the tooth (sales) tax on cotton was allocated to its budget. In 1919 the program was extended by opening a cotton experiment station south of the pagoda, but in 1928 the station was closed and the land used for a public playground.

In 1917 the magistrate instructed the head of the Agricultural Experiment Station to open a tree nursery. Seven hundred mu of land were borrowed from the girls' school and an appropriation of $166 was made for the work. In 1918 the trees in two temples were cut down and sold and the money was used to erect the buildings for the nursery and additional funds were granted for the program. Considerable progress must have been made, for in 1920 the provincial inspector approved the program and sent a certificate of commendation.

In 1921 the girls' school was given 100 mu of land for experiments in raising mulberry trees for the feeding of silk worms.

In 1928 an inventory of the nursery showed 5,500 Chinese cedars, 5,800 silk trees (Albizzia Julibrissin), 6,000 Chinese ash, 7,000 Lindera, 9,800 white poplar, 12,000 cedars, 75,000 thorn ash, and 250,000 mul-

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berry. There were also 31 mu of German ash, 91 mu of willow bushes, and 35 mu of vegetables and other crops.

The 1929 hsien budget included $1,276 for the nursery. Forty dollars was sent to Paoting for the experimental farm there.

Bureau of Education

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The Bureau of Education was the successor, after several reorganizations, of the Bureau for Urging the People to Learn which was established in 1904. At that time the magistrate and the supervisor of the middle schools joined to persuade the people to establish elementary schools. This campaign resulted in the establishment of 130 schools. The Bureau for Urging the People to Learn was organized with a director and 16 assistants, all volunteers, whose only remuneration was a small amount to cover the cost of their travel.

By 1910 the large number of assistants and the lack of individual responsibility were found to be inefficient, so the 16 volunteers were replaced by four paid assistants.

In the changes of 1913 the Bureau was abolished and its work was taken over by the educational section of the hsien government. At that time one supervisor was employed to inspect the elementary schools.

Some of the citizens, who had had experience in educational work, felt that the educational section could not adequately supervise the work of the schools. Hence they organized an Educational Committee of three members to cooperate with the village heads and their assistants in promoting the work of the schools. Before the end of 1914 the educational section of the yamen felt that it was "inconvenient" for it to continue the educational work and the Bureau for Encouraging the People to Learn was reestablished with a headman who was paid $30 a month and five assistants who each received $10 a month.

Forty-one schools were established in 1914. These included two schools with both upper and lower primary grades, and two girls' and 37 boys' lower primary schools. In 1915 the name of the lower primary schools was changed to People's Schools. In that year 159 new schools were established. Sixteen of these were for girls. Six of the boys' schools had both the upper and lower primary grades. A traveling teacher was appointed to supervise the schools. During the next four years, 60 girls' and 20 boys' schools were added and it became necessary to add an extra traveling teacher.

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In 1915 the administrative budget of the Bureau amounted to $1,100 per year. In 1923 it was increased to $1,700 because of the increase in prices and an increase in the personnel of the Bureau. These funds came from the land taxes. To facilitate the educational program and the supervision of the schools the hsien was divided into 25 school districts. The program called for the establishment of an elementary school in every village with more than 500 families (only seven villages had that many families). Smaller villages were to join with a neighboring village or villages to establish a union school.

In 1923 the Provincial Department of Education ordered that the Bureau for Urging the People to Learn be reorganized as the Hsien Bureau of Education. The personnel of the Bureau consisted of a head, five inspectors, four education committee members, a treasurer, a business manager, and a clerk. The head of the Bureau was put in charge of all the educational work of the hsien, but functioned under the direction of the magistrate. The annual budget of the Bureau amounted to $3,948.

In 1929 the personnel of the Bureau still totaled 13, but there were only three instead of five inspectors. The Educational Committee had been increased to five and a secretary had been added to the list. The hsien was divided into 12 school districts, two in each District. The administrative budget for the Bureau had been increased to $6,096. The hsien budget also included $22,203 for the expenses of the middle, normal, and vocational schools, $5,100 for the city primary schools, and $10,959 subsidy for the village primary schools. Rent from village lands or general village funds provided the main support of the primary schools.

The Office for Social Education was established in 1917 as par the model hsien program. Its function was to promote social adult education and through those programs to improve the customs and habits of the community. There were only two on the office staff, a headman and a clerk. They were also in charge of the public library, the newspaper reading room, and the museum, and supervised the work of the Three Principles Lecture Hall. The expenses of the Office, including the library, the reading room, and the museum, totaled $648 in 1929. The budget of the lecture hall was $288. In 1930 the name of the Office was changed to the Peoples' Educational Office.

The Educational Association was established in 1907 by those who

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were interested in promoting education in Ting Hsien. Later on the head of the Bureau for Encouraging the People to Learn was appointed from the membership of the Association. In 1913, when the work of the Bureau for Encouraging the People to Learn was taken over by the educational section of the hsien government, the Association was abolished. The Bureau was reestablished in 1914, but the Association was not reorganized until 1917. At that time its name was changed to the Educational Weekly Association. Its chief activity was the publication of a weekly paper. A president and vice-president were elected for a term of three years. They were the editors of the paper. In 1929 the budget of the Association was $150 for the expense of publishing the weekly. The money came from general hsien funds.

The total for education in the hsien expenditure budget for 1929 was $45,444. This was 42 per cent of the budgeted items. If the non-budgeted administrative items, magistrate's office, and judiciary were added to the budgeted total the amount for education would probably be between 30 and 35 per cent of the total hsien expenditure.

Farm Association

The Farm Association was established in 1876 to promote reforestation and to protect the grain in the fields, but was discontinued because of political disturbances. It was reorganized in 1914. It was not affected by the 1928 reorganization and continued to receive a grant of $570 from the hsien Bureau of Finance.

In 1918 the hsien government required the people in the villages to organize branches of the Farm Association. Three hundred and twenty-seven were set up in the 453 villages. The branch associations tried to protect the trees and grain in their area and investigated and attempted to solve any thefts of trees or grain. This would seem to be a duplication of the function of the Green Crop Associations and an attempt on the part of the government to take over and control that work.

Merchants' Association

The Merchants' Branch Association, originally organized under the Manchu regime, was reorganized in 1914 by representatives of 95 shops. The next year the Agricultural Section issued orders that the Association should again be reorganized and the name changed. The new name was the Merchants' Association or, it might be translated, Chamber of

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441 Commerce. Orders from the Agricultural Section and the Bureau of In-
634 dustry required changes in the organization and rules of the Association in 1916 and again in 1918, if it was to register with the Section and be authorized to use a seal.

The Association's annual budget of $2,000 was part of the hsien budget. The necessary funds came from membership fees of $3, $4, and $5 a year, a fee for handling the excise stamps attached to receipts, and part of the tax on cotton cloth.

The organization of the Bureau of Public Judgment on Commercial Matters was one of the duties of the annual conference of the Association. This Bureau was to "harmonize opinions and compromise disagreements by conciliation and arbitration". The salary of the director appointed to handle the affairs of the Bureau was $20 a month. The secretary was paid $8 a month and the clerk $5.

Anti-Litigation Society

627 The Anti-Litigation Society was organized in 1923 and reorganized in 1925. Its purpose was to prevent litigation and to arbitrate the disputes of the people. The $635 spent for its activities was part of the budget of the Merchants' Association.

When the Anti-Litigation Society was reorganized the magistrate then in office directed that all lawsuits should be heard and, if possible, settled by the Society before they came to the yamen. Only those cases with which the Society was unsuccessful were to come before the hsien court. More than 100 cases were settled in the five years from 1923 to 1928.

Anti-Foot-Binding Society

304 The Anti-Foot-Binding Society was a semi-official organization founded in 1913 to persuade the women to unbind their feet and parents not to bind their daughters' feet. The magistrate was the president. The head of the Bureau of Education and the head of the Police Court were the vice-presidents. The heads of other community organizations were the members and honorary officers. For a time meetings were held the first of every month in the offices of the Bureau for Encouraging the People to Learn. Six women were appointed as district investigators and given travel fees of $20 each. Branch societies were organized in prac-

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tically all the villages. Foot-binding had been so generally discontinued by 1928 that the Society was no longer active.

Other items in the Special section of the hsien budget were $600 for the model village program of Chai Ch'eng, $550 for public ceremonies, $380 for food for the poor, $27.15 for winter clothes for the poor, $216 for food for prisoners, and $2,000 for miscellaneous.

Districts

After the political reorganization in 1928 the Provincial Government promulgated rules and regulations for the establishment of from three to eight chü (districts) in each hsien, for the democratic election of the headmen of the villages, and for organizing the families in each village into lin and lü, five families to a lin and 25 families to a lü.

There were six Districts in Ting Hsien in 1928.[3] The district heads at first were appointed by the magistrate, but it was planned that later they would be elected. The appointees were to be examined and trained by the Provincial Department of Civil Affairs. The head of the district, with the help of two or three assistants, was required to carry out the orders of the magistrate, report to him the desires of the people, transmit to the villages all rules and orders affecting them, and, as the chief police officer of the district, to carry out the orders of the Bureau of Public Safety. District conferences were to be held every season to receive reports and discuss district affairs. The expenses of the district government were not to be more than $80 a month for a small district, $100 a month for a medium sized district, and $120 a month for a large district.

The regulations provided for the appointment of a supervising committee of five, three to be named by the Village Supervisory Committee of the District and two by the magistrate. The committee's primary function was to audit the accounts of the district and supervise the activities of the district head. The committee members served without salary. The amount allowed the committee for expenses was determined by

3. A map issued by the Division of Social Survey of the Hopei Provincial Institute of Political and Social Reconstruction in May, 1934, showed only five districts. The new 2nd, 3rd, and 5th Districts were the same as the old 3rd, 4th, and 6th. Nine villages on the west end of the old 2nd District had been added to the old 5th to make the new 4th Disrict. The remainder of the old 2nd District and the old 1st had been combined to make the new 1st District.

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634 the Village Supervisory Committee but was not to exceed $120 per year. Ordinarily the committee held only one meeting per year, on the 1st of March, but special meetings could be called by any two members of the committee.

Villages

Four hundred and fifty-three organized villages and towns carried on the local political administration of Ting Hsien. Each one controlled a village residence area and the surrounding farm land. The size of the villages ranged from six to 1,200 families, the farm areas from 245 mu to 32,500 mu.

The usual village government was a headman and a vice-head selected by and assisted by recognized influential men of the village community or representatives of the influential families. After 1928 the headmen were to be elected by the village. These men regularly served without pay. The detailed work of the village government was done by salaried clerks and secretaries.

Besides carrying on the village administration the village governments were responsible to the hsien magistrate and the district officer to pass on to the people of the village information concerning new laws and rules and regulations. The headmen were also generally responsible to the magistrate for the actions of the villagers. When there was fighting in the area the headmen were required to produce the villages' share of the requisitions and assessments levied on the hsien by the armies.

The changes that came after Boxer year, the Revolution of 1911, and the Nationalist success in 1928 all brought more and more control of the village governments by the hsien and provincial governments until, in 1929, the regulations required that a representative of the hsien government supervise the election of the village head and that the village families be organized into lin and lü groups, the leaders of which were to be responsible for their members. These sub-village organizations apparently made possible a much closer control of the rural population than previously had been the case.

The provincial regulations listed the minimum number of organizations that should be set up in each village. These included the village government, the home guard, the village school, the anti-litigation society, and the farm association.

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The cost of the village administration and other activities were met from the rent of any land owned by the village and from funds raised from the land owners of the village. The assessment rate per mu was determined by the amount of money required and the amount of land in the village area. So that shops and stores that owned no land might bear their share of the cost of the village government they were, in some instances at least, rated as "owning" a given number of mu and assessed on that amount at the current rate.

The amounts of the Ting Hsien village budgets and the expenditure for administration, home guard, schools, etc., were not available for our study. Other studies in nearby areas found that in 1929 the assessments for the village services ran about 15 cents per mu.

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A study of the occupations and ages of the village officers showed that over 95 per cent of the headmen and vice-heads were farmers. There was a wide range in their ages. The youngest headman was only 20 years old, the youngest vice-head 19. The oldest headman was 82, the oldest vice-head was 84. The average ages were 47 and 46. Some 5 per cent of the headmen were under 30 years of age, while 6.5 per cent were 65 or over. The youth of so many of the village heads and vice-heads would seem to indicate that in many cases they were selected because of the prestige of their families rather than for their own leadership.

There were eight more headmen than there were villages and 28 more vice-headmen. In eight villages there were two separate governments. Local jealousies and friction between different groups in these villages had reached the point where it had become necessary to divide the village geographically, divide the village income, and set up a second government. Twenty of the larger villages and towns evidently needed more than one vice-head to carry on the village program and had taken advantage of the government's regulation that permitted a village with over 200 families to have two and one with over 300 families to have three assistant heads. There were 114 villages with 200 or more families and 43 with 300 or more.

Nineteen villages had two residence areas but only one government. Later on the number of villages might be increased if the satellite areas insisted on being given separate status.

Further details of village organization and activity are given in our more complete study of Chai Ch'eng.

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TABLE 44. TERMS OF MAGISTRATES

	Date	Yrs.	Mos.	Days		Date	Yrs.	Mos.	Days
1.	May 16, 1901		7	15	14.	Mar. 3, 1919	1	0	2
2.	Feb. 1, 1902	2	4	4	15.	Mar. 5, 1920	3	10	18
3.	June 8, 1904[1]		1	8	16.	Jan. 23, 1924		1	18
4.	July 13, 1904		8	23	17.	Mar. 11, 1924		10	19
5.	Apr. 6, 1905[1]		1	14	18.	Jan. 30, 1925		3	10
6.	May 20, 1905		7	19	19.	May 9, 1925		1	14
7.	Nov. 25, 1905	4	11	12	20.	June 23, 1925		6	8
8.	Oct. 7, 1910	1	1	13	21.	Jan. 1, 1926		3	11
9.	Nov. 20, 1911		4	5	22.	Apr. 12, 1926		6	17
10.	Mar. 25, 1912		8	6	23.	Oct. 29, 1926		11	12
11.	Dec. 1, 1912	1	6	12	24.	Oct. 11, 1927		7	4
12.	May 12, 1914	2	4	24	25.	May 15, 1928		4	6
13.	Sept. 26, 1916	2	6	7		Sept. 21, 1928			

[1] Same appointee.

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cock crowing terrace. One was just Big Village; its companion Little Village. Another pair were Big and Little Growing Village. Three villages were Unusually United. Only one was named for an occupation, paper making.

The hsien history of 1849 reported that in olden times the hsien had been divided into 38 li with the number of villages in each li varying from one to 29. The total number of villages was 430. In 1845, when the pao-chia system was being revived, the name of the division was changed to yueh. At that time there were 44 yueh and 423 villages. Each yueh had from three to 29 villages. After 1912 the villages were divided into administrative areas known first as districts and then as self government districts. At the time of our study there were six districts and 453 towns and villages.[3] Figure 1 shows how the districts were divided.

In the six districts the number of villages varied from 63 to 90, the number of families from 6,555 to 16,010, the average number of families per village from 92 to 220, the amount of arable land from 150,156 to 342,773 mu, the average amount of arable land per village from 2,050 to 4,290 mu, but the average amount of farm land per family was very similar for all six districts. It varied from 19.1 to 23.8 mu per family (see page 22). The hsien average was 20.4 mu per family, or 3.5 mu per person.

Our averages of 20.4 mu of farm land per family and 3.5 mu per person agreed very closely with other reports of land distribution in Hopei. D. K. Lieu and Cheng Chung-min reported an average of 3.5 mu per person for Jehol, Chahar, Suiyuan, Ningsia, Hopei, and Shansi provinces.[4] Cressey gave the average cultivated land per farm household in Hopei as 24 mu.[5] Our average per farm family in Ting Hsien was 21.2 mu.

We found the district divisions convenient when collecting our material and developing our tables, but since the division into districts was primarily for administrative purposes and the study of the figures did

3. The 1934 hsien map had only five districts. The 1st and most of the 2nd had been combined into one. Nine villages from the old 2nd were added to the old 5th to make the new 4th. Only the numbers of the other three districts were changed.

4. "Statistics of Farm Land in China", *Chinese Economic Journal*, March, 1928.

5. George B. Cressey, *China's Geographic Foundations* (McGraw Hill Book Co., New York, 1934).

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634 not show any distinctive and continuous differences between the districts, only occasionally have we given the detailed district figures.

When the Mass Education Movement began its work in Ting Hsien in 1926 it had its headquarters in the market village of Chai Ch'eng, in the east central part of the hsien. It took for its field of work at that time Chai Ch'eng, the neighboring market town of Tung T'ing, and the 60 villages that did most of their trading with Chai Ch'eng and Tung T'ing. This was our Experimental District. The area included in the District is shown in Figure 1. There were 10,445 families in the 62 villages. The reported farm area of the villages was 238,563 mu, an average of 23 mu per family. In the different villages the average amount of farm land per family varied from 11.4 to 50.0 mu.

491 A 36 foot national road for cart and animal travel came from Paoting and went on south to Shih Chia Chuang. During the Ch'ing dynasty there was a watchman every five li and a watch house every 10 li. It was the watchman's duty to repair the road, especially when the Emperor came out on a trip. After 1911 the watchmen were discontinued and the road fell into disrepair, but it was still being used. In 1916 the unused land in the right of way, amounting to some 60 mu, was allocated by the provincial government to the Girls' School as an endowment. The land was rented and the income used by the school.

Five hsien roads that radiated from the city to the hsien boundaries provided for local traffic and for transportation to the neighboring hsien. The villages were all interconnected by minor roads. Any repairs made on the roads were done by the villagers living nearby. In some villages the alumni association of the Mass Education Movement promoted a program of road repair.

When a necromancer reported that broken feng-shui was the reason for the death of an unusual number of the people living in the houses facing on one of the village roads the regrading of the street became a matter for the entire community. Every family on the street sent at least one man and several also sent carts to help with the work. The feng-shui was broken because part of the road drained to the north and part to the south. The situation was made still worse by the fact that the water that flowed north joined water coming from the northwest and ran off to the east. The necromancer stated that the feng-shui could be restored if the road was regraded so that there was a continuous flow from north to south and the water from the northwest flowed down the street in-

4: Burgess E-4, 5 (1926-1927) 1928 AF12 North China AF12

631 642 It is not necessary in this study to give a detailed description of the ancient systems of Chinese government. S. Wells Williams,[1] H. B. Morse[2] and many others have outlined this ancient regime. The governmental structure had four main divisions: (1) the Emperor and the court; (2) a system of government boards and bureaus at Peking; (3) the provincial government composed of viceroy or governor and his staff of officials appointed by the central 634 government; (4) the various subdivisions of the provincial 642 government which have as their smallest governmental unit the *Hsien*, which has been variously translated as township or county. This *Hsien* was composed of a walled city which was the county seat for the surrounding rural area. The *Hsien* magistrate, or prefect, because of his close relations to the people, was known as the "Father and Mother of the People."[3] He was (1) the judge of the district, controlling the police, enforcing the law and punishing offenders, (2) the collector of taxes, (3) the registrar of lands and (4) the governmental famine commissioner who saw to it that in time of famine the people were fed from the public granaries, which it was his duty to keep well filled.

After reading any of the detailed descriptions of what these prefects were supposed to do, one would imagine that the people of China were ruled in every detail of their life by the county official. Earlier in this study[4] it has been shown, however, that the facts are just the opposite. Morse describes the actual situation in these words:

These are the principal functions of the Mayor of the Chinese

[1] S. Wells Williams, *The Middle Kingdom* (New York, 1907).

[2] Morse, *The Trade and Administration of China* (New York, 1913).

[3] Morse, *op. cit.*, p. 59.

[4] *Cf.*, pp. 26-27.

4: Burgess E-4, 5 (1926-1927) 1928 AF12 North China AF12

These are the principal functions of the Mayor of the Chinese municipium, and under the paternal government of this "Father and Mother of the People" the ruled might be expected to be a body of abject slaves. This is far from being the case. In most countries the people may be divided into the law-abiding and the lawless; in China a third division must be noted—those who, though innocent of offense, come within the meshes of the law through the machinations of enemies. This, however, only serves to redress the balance, since the Chinese are essentially a law-abiding people, and, in the country at least, are guilty of few crimes below their common recreations of rebellion and brigandage. These they indulge in periodically when the harvest is in, if for any reason, such as flood or drought, the crops have been deficient; but, apart from this and apart from the regular visits of the tax-collector, it is doubtful if the actual existence of a government is brought tangibly to the notice of a tenth, certainly not to a fifth, of the population. The remaining eighty or more per cent live their daily life under their customs, the common law of the land, interpreted and executed by themselves. Each village is the unit for this common-law government, the fathers of the village exercising the authority vested in age, but acting under no official warrant, and interpreting the customs of their fathers as they learned them in their youth.[1]

The town where the official lives was, according to Morse, treated very much like a village.

The town is considered a collection of villages, being divided into *chia*, "wards," each with its *Tipao*, whose duties are the same as those of his country colleague.[2]

The function of the official as a tax collector was the one that affected the life of the people in town or country the most directly. There were two principal types of taxes: the land tax and the tribute or tax on the products of the

[1] Morse, *op. cit.*, p. 59.

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 60-61.

4: Burgess E-4, 5 (1926-1927) 1928 AF12 North China AF12

miles an hour, the modern automobile of an official with armed soldiers standing on the running board. British- and American-built trains come in through an ancient wall to the stately, modern-style railroad stations. In the same city where the ancient palaces of Emperors and princes occupy vast areas are modern hotels, office buildings, and residences. Peking is the happy hunting ground of tourists who wish to get the products of Chinese handcraft and art. In sections of the Southern City certain streets are named from the product sold or made in that particular district. One street is known to the tourist as Silk Street, another as Lantern Street. In another section are the gold workers; in another, the cloisonné designers. In a very small section in the Northern City are the makers of old-style bows and arrows, with their shops closely adjoining one another. And many modern stores are being opened for the selling of clothing, hardware, bicycles, automobiles, electrical supplies, and other importations from the West.

Peking is unlike any other city in its government.

The Government of Peking is a Chinese puzzle. Many different boards and agencies, including the National Government, its President, Cabinet and Parliament, the Metropolitan District, and two of its 20 *Hsien*, the Military Guard under the Board of War, the Municipal Council and Police Board, both of which are responsible to the Minister of the Interior, are all functioning in the city. The powers of the various boards are determined by custom rather than by law, so it is practically impossible to describe their relationship under all conditions.[1]

The relation of the guilds to the government naturally is not the same as it would be in a small town where the local *Hsien* official alone deals with the taxes. However, the same attitude of solidarity against the government officials is found

[1] Gamble and Burgess, *op. cit.*, p. 29.

4: Burgess E-4, 5 (1926-1927) 1928 AF12 North China AF12

in the guilds in Peking. The problem is a similar one although the government agencies now dealing with the guilds are more complicated.

Peking had in 1919 a population of 811,556,[1] of which an unusually large proportion were males — 63.5 per cent.[2] The reason for this undue proportion is the very large number of officials living in Peking without their families and the army of expectant officials awaiting appointment, and also the large male student population. In 1919 there were 16,879 students in modern-style high schools and colleges. The number has greatly increased since then. The large number of men and boys in shops and stores who have come in from the country, away from their families, is another factor.

Because Peking is a city with such a high percentage of officials and students, one looks in vain for any considerable body of local gentry. The official group comes from every province and practically from every city in China, and the students come from a similarly wide area. One would naturally suppose that the guilds in Peking would be less affected by the pressure of public opinion than would those in other cities, for there is little unity in the conglomerate group of temporary residents that make up the official and student ranks.

Modern industry has affected Peking very little indeed.

Other cities in China point with pride to the modern factories which they have established, but Peking has little industry that is efficient and on a modern basis. The city has long been a political rather than an industrial center, and the local octroi charges have tended to discourage the establishment of modern factories inside the walls. The principal examples of modern industry are the telephone company, the electric light company,

[1] Gamble and Burgess, *op. cit.*, p. 30.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 99.

6:Young et. al. E-5 (1928-1929) 1930 AF12 North China AF12

HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY AND ECOLOGY

The practice of dividing a centre among several districts is a common one in China. For example, Peping is the headquarters for both Ta Hsing Hsien (大興縣) and Wan Ping Hsien (宛平縣) in addition to being the centre for other political districts; and the same applies to Nanking and other big cities.

If it is to render adequate service the headquarters ought naturally to be in the very centre of the district, but the strange thing is that the Fifth Political District of Wan Ping Hsien is divided into two parts, one around the town of Ching Ho on its northwestern side, and the other division some forty li away. There is Still another village in the same political division, which is about forty li away on the Northeestern side and is not territorically connected with Ching Ho either. In order to transact any political business the officials from the headquarters have to go through some one else's territory in order to get to their own districts. As can be seen from the map (2) there are two separate districts on the east side and on the west side. Although the eastern area is relatively small in size it has a much larger population and is far wealthier than the mountainous and less productive western district. Since it is impossible to attend to the daily business of the western district from the central office, a branch office is maintained in Pei An Ho, (北安河) as a sub-centre for the whole district. The map shows also the village of Yü Chuang (于莊) which is forty li from the central administration.

As can be seen from the map, that part of the metropolitan area which has the south side of Ching Ho for its centre is much smaller than the fifth district

6:Young et. al. E-5 (1928-1929) 1930 AF12 North China AF12

away the marauders. Since the coming of the Party 722
organisation the president has resigned, and the 625
organisation has lapsed.

2. Self Government.

In Ching-ho we have district self-government and 634
village self-government, the former having the advantage of knowing the county authorities and being the link between the official connty government and the local self government. The village and the county government have not many points of contact and the district government has taken advantage of this position, and holds the most important position in rural politics.

The self-government movement was started in 1915 when a school was established in Peping to give suitable training to would-be officers. Although the word used is *self government* the officers were appointed by the government direct, the village heads by the county government, and the district trustees by the governor of the Capital District of Peping. Two trustees were appointed for the Fifth District of Wan Ping, and two for every other village, all of whom continued to serve until the coming of the Party Organisation

Although there are these two systsms of self- 634
government in Ching-ho, yet in practice they work 622
very much together, using the same office, and dealing with the same problems. but it is the district self-government association that is the real functional organisation with the help of the village self-government associationn. All financial matters come under